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Editorial Notes World Notes ..

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Editorial Notes

The untimely death of President Harding while engaged in the service of his country has tended to "discover" him to many persons who previously found little worth while in him. Among his most frequently mentioned traits of worth are: (1) his love of simplicity, (2) his willingness to put others ahead of himself, (3) his love of the normal and abhorrence of the spectacular and faddish, and (4) his earnest desire for world peace. In the long run he will probably be known best by the Conference on the Limitation of Armaments which he called and at which he said: "We meet for a service to mankind," and again, "We only wish to do with you that finer, nobler thing which no nation can do alone. We wish to sit with you at the table of international understanding and good will. In good conscience we are eager to meet you frankly and invite and offer cooperation."

PRESIDENT HARDING'S strong support of the Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act, including charges of "nullification" of the Constitution against New York state and her socially near-sighted governor has given the believers in prohibition a new courage.

Henry Ford's statement that the Army and Navy might be put to work in "stamping out the bootlegger" instead of being kept in "what is regarded as luxurious ease" might be taken seriously were it not that the "army cannot interfere in civil affairs unless a state of martial law has been declared."

THE SUGGESTION that a woman should be appointed to the Supreme Court appears to be sound. An increasing number of cases are coming before that body for settlement in which the interests of women are paramount. Women are becoming lawyers and are securing judicial experience in increasing numbers. Moreover, outstanding women are available for appointment to the Supreme Bench.

IN THE DECISION of the United States Steel Corporation to abolish the unchristian and inhuman twelve-hour day we see the influence of a determined public opinion. The announcement that economic considerations made it practically impossible to change to the shorter day met with no favor in any quarter. The attempts to discredit the Report of the Inter-Church World movement only increased the bombardment until Judge Gary gave way before the pressure.

Social work is steadily moving toward the standing of a profession. The executive committee of the Association of Training Schools has recently made an excellent report on "standards" for training in which four types of preparation are urged: (1) pre-professional courses; (2) social science courses in order to give a broadly scientific basis for social work; (3) technical knowledge courses; and (4) technical training courses, consisting chiefly of intensive field work under adequate supervision.

PRESIDENT HARDING'S plan to abolish the Departments of War and the Navy and to unite them in a Department of National Defense is meritorious. It shifts the national emphasis away from "making war." The corollary plan was to establish a Department of Public Welfare with education being given the first place, and public health, social service, and soldier rehabilitation following in order. Thus, the number of Secretaries in the President's Cabinet would remain the same and an improved organization of the executive branch of the government would result.

World Notes

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THE REPORTS from Italy indicate that Mussolini's program of military organization and iron discipline in building a strong nationalism is already creating much dissension among its friends and that the political pendulum will soon swing toward a renaissance of democracy.

From Mexico Professor E. A. Ross has written: "Already Sonora and Yucatan are dry." He states that anti-alcohol leagues are being formed in other parts of Mexico and reports the working-men in Monterey parading behind banners, such as: "We want schools and no saloons."

Among the resolutions adopted at the July meeting of the National Educational Association were the following of far-reaching import: (1) That an international university be established whose chief function will be the study of inter-racial questions and the relation of education to these questions; and (2) that a universal library service be established to supply to any nation upon request books, pamphlets, and magazines for use in any subject.

AFTER several months' negotiations at Lausanne Turkey has come out more victorious than anyone would have prophesied eight months ago. The Turk is no longer "the sick man of Europe," for he has recovered by the Lausanne negotiations a healthy foothold in Europe, and the control of the Dardanelles; he found it necessary to make no guarantees of a homeland for Armenia. In the meantime, the Allies have parlied in mutual suspicion and the United States "has stood by unconcerned and inert."

THE CURRENT rise of nationalism is bringing about a change in missionary activities in many lands. China does not want an American Christianity, but a Chinese Christianity. The cry of proselyting is being raised far and near, and many peoples are saying, Don't send us missionaries except on our invitation. As a result of the new life which has been stirring around the world in the form of national consciousness each land is asking to be let alone in the reconsidering of its own culture. The time is drawing near for the systematic holding of world conferences on religion; otherwise, national religions may bring about a religious war.

Social unrest seems to be on the increase in Spain. The tottering throne is sustained by militarism and other autocratic means of keeping the masses in ignorance and fearful. When the social explosion comes either an intolerant fascistism or a proletariat dictatorship will probably be tried. It will be only when education has become common that democracy may be expected to come into its own.

The opposition to the World Court of International Justice points out that the United States will be discriminated against because the Court, if the United States enters, will be represented by fourteen "foreigners" to one American, and that the European representatives will stand together in matters involving Europe versus America. It is also argued that the Court does not prevent disputes but adjudicates them after they have arisen. It is urged that it would be better if each nation would try by the conference method to come to open agreements and mutual understandings, and thus be able to avoid many disputes altogether.

The reasons for the meager results obtained at the Pan-American Conference at Santiago a few months ago are becoming clear. Excess nationalism kept the chief Latin-American republics in mistrust of one another. The fear of the growing material power of the United States held Latin America as a unit aloof from forming a closer union with the United States. The Italian and Spanish press of Europe refer to the Conference as an attempt "to conquer Latin America under the banner of the Monroe Doctrine." "Anglo-Saxon Monroeism was defeated." "The imperial progress" of the United States caused her motives to be questioned and prevented common action by the American nations.

Nor only in the United States but in many other countries the farmers are raising agricultural products at a loss. A study recently published concerning agricultural produce in England shows how produce is sometimes handled by fifteen or more middlemen before reaching the consumer and that gross profits as high as 344 per cent were received. The distance between the producer and the consumer is ever widening and the problems arising therefrom are becoming of international importance. This is only one of many urgent social and economic problems that are developing simultaneously in many countries at the present time, and for which there are as yet no means of working out solutions comprehensively and internationally.

WHAT IS SOCIALIZATION?1

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CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

Professor of Sociology, University of Missouri

Ours is a divided world. Races, nations, classes, and individuals are far from being united in the work of life, but are living oftentimes in isolation, distrust, antagonism, and sometimes in open conflict. Even within small communities the gulf which separates the rich and poor, the privileged and the non-privileged, the educated and the ignorant, is often so great that there is little understanding, sympathy, or effective cooperation among these different elements. In the world at large misunderstanding, antipathy, and hostile conflict are, in general, only too painfully evident.

The one indispensable remedy for all this, according to the constructive psychological school of sociological thinkers, is the socialization of the individual—of all individuals. It is not coercive forms of social control, or some redistribution or reorganization of the material conditions of life, according to this school, which will put an end to these divisions and conflicts among men, but the socialization of individual character—the creation of socially minded men and women. Thus, if we wish to put an end to war, it will not be possible to do this by any external form of organization among the nations or by any division of the wealth and material resources of the earth. No external machinery will be anything more than aid. The vital thing will be the socialization of individual character

³ An extract from Chapter III of a book, Christianity and Social Science: A Challenge to the Church, to be published by the Macmillan Company for Professor Ellwood in September.

with reference, not to small groups, but to the whole c. humanity. Again, if we wish to put an end to divisions within the nation and to the threat of civil wars, it will not be possible to do this merely through the recognition of the interests of certain classes or factions. Only the socialization of the individuals who make up the minor groups with reference to the larger group, the nation at large, will prevent the manifestation of group egoism on the part of these minor groups.

But what is meant by the socialization of individual character? And why oppose this method to the method

of social control or external social constraint?

By socialization we mean, as Professor E. W. Burgess says, "conscious and willing coordination by the person of his interests with those of the group;" or, as Professor Ros says, "the development of the we-feeling in associates, and their growth in capacity and will to act together." Socialization may be briefly defined as the development of the social spirit in individuals. The social spirit of men may, of course, be high or low in its ethical aim; but as it develops and universalizes itself, so as to include all men, it purifies itself. Socialization, as it has reference to larger and larger groups of men, tends toward moralization. Socialization may be, of course, with reference to very small groups, such as the family, or local community; but sociologists generally use the word as having reference to very large groups, especially to nations, civilizations, and humanity. In general, the sociologists of the school of which we are speaking would not recognize socialization as complete unless it led the individual practically to identify himself and his interests with those of humanity as awhole. Such socialization is, of course, a spiritual matter. It is the psychic articulation, or, as Comte would have said, "the incorporation," of the individual into the collective life of humanity.

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The outstanding trait of the highly socialized individual is his sense of social responsibility. He not only identifies himself with his fellow men, but he holds himself responsible for their welfare, so far as it lies within his power. Social obligation is the key to his conduct. He puts himself at the service of his group. He is socially conscious. He thinks not so much of himself as of his associates.2 He accepts responsibility not simply for his own welfare, but also for their welfare. He is, in a word, moralized with reference to his group; and hence if the group be humanity, socialization and moralization in an idealistic sense will coincide. Socialization in its highest phases becomes a process of moralization. All this presupposes the development of a social sense—a sense of individual and collective esponsibility within the individual. It is a matter not of external constraint, but of conscious voluntary choice on the part of the individual.

The socialization of individual character, then, is not something external. It involves the achievement of self-control on the part of the individual, so that he consciously and voluntarily modifies his behavior and shapes his purposes to promote the welfare either of humanity as a whole or of some smaller group. If the socialization of the individual has reference only to the smaller groups, such socialization may lead to group egoism, and so work at cross purposes with the interests of humanity at large. Accordingly, in discussing the process of socialization I shall assume humanity as the unit of our thinking, recognizing that while a person may be socialized from the standpoint of a small group, he may not be socialized with reference to humanity. I shall endeavor to show, however, that if

² Compare the statement of Professor T. G. Soares (*The Social Institutions and Ideals of the Bible*, p. 376): "The true socialization of the individual has taken place, when, regarding himself as an end—that is, a being whose good is worthy to be sought—he regards all other persons also as ends, never using anyone simply as a means, and finds his own welfare in the welfare of the group to which in any wise he belongs, even the great human group in its entirety."

he is socialized with reference to humanity, he will be socialized also in the best way for life in smaller groups.

It is to such socialization of the individual or to the development of the social spirit in individuals to which sociologists of the constructive psychological school look for the solution of the great problems of our civilization rather than to mere external social control. Social control depends upon constraint of the individual, while socialization would place control within the individual. Its aim is personal character. Thus it would reconcile social control and self-control. We might say that socialization of the individual expresses itself in social self-control. Such socialization of individual character must reach not simply the intelligence and the will, but also the sentiments and emotions of individuals. It can be accomplished manifestly only through an educational process which undertakes to modify the whole nature of man. This socialized character in individuals is the dynamic which the social thinkers of the school of which I have spoken rely upon to bring about enduring social order and social progress in our human world. But the process of socialization is itself complex and will need further analysis. Socialization is a blanket term, and until it is analyzed will have little meaning.

The opposite of socialization is of course voluntary separation and isolation of the individual from all group life. But practically the opposite which we find in human society is the predatory and selfish behavior of individuals with reference to their own groups. Professor Giddings has furnished an interesting analysis of socialization. He says, "the zero point of socialization is criminality, that degree of departure from prevailing and approved behavior which the community with relative severity punishes." The unsocialized individual, Professor Giddings goes on to specify, shows instincts little controlled, his sympathy

deficient or narrow in range, he is cruel in an unfeeling and brutal rather than in a deliberate way, his tastes low and crude, his ideas are elementary and limited in number and range. The highly socialized individual, on the other hand, Giddings finds to be dependable and helpful, mindful of the value of social usage, but also independent in thought, courageous, willing to experiment, but with full responsibility for the results. His emotions are abundant and varied, his beliefs subject to review and modification, his ideas abundant and organized; he is open-minded but insistent upon evidence; judicially critical rather than fault-finding; inventive and creative.

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In a further analysis Professor Giddings finds that the process of socialization is a process of growing consciousness of kind, of increasing like-mindedness, of increasing sympathy and understanding and of increasing friendliness or affection among the members of a group. It is this process which leads to cooperation and makes cooperation possible, especially in its higher forms. It is socialization, too, according to Giddings, which produces all rationally conscientious behavior. The socializing forces— the influences which promote human fellowship and which lead us to identify ourselves with our fellows and ultimately with humanity—are, accordingly, the true constructive forces in the building of human society.

We may carry this analysis of socialization a step further sociologically by saying that socialization is the participation by the individual in the higher social values. It is only through participation in the group consciousness that associates get the we-feeling and develop capacity and will to act together. While at first all this may be on a very low plane, yet as the group enlarges from the primitive horde to humanity, and as it comes to include not only the living but those yet to be born, social consciousness is extended, social values universalized, and socialization becomes increasingly a process of moralization.

All advances in human fellowship manifestly depend upon increasing socialization. Human fellowship itself—that is, acquaintance, sympathy, and understanding among associates—is an outcome of socialization; and these elements in fellowship react to socialize still further the associates. Thus, "true sympathy," says Miss Follett, "is a sense of community. . . . It is a recognition of oneness. . . . It cannot be actualized until we can think and feel together." For this reason Miss Follet rightly sees in the development of the group spirit, or of true socialization, if it is on a humanity-wide scale, the solution of our problems, national and international. The true fellowship which some day shall harmonize the relations of classes, nations, and races, must come, in a word, from the promotion and widening of the socializing process.



A CIVILIZATION which compels a very large portion of the people to live in a landscape of brick walls, stone pavements and strips of sky, can hardly in the nature of things, hope to continue. Woods, The Neighborhood in Nation-Building, p. 72.

EACH nation, the United States not excepted, has made its contribution to the welter of evil which now comprises the Far Eastern Question. We shall do well to drop for all time the pose of self-righteousness and injured innocence and penitently face the facts. Dennett, Americans in Asia, p. viii.

Christianity was, in a measure, like opium, being imposed upon China without the consent of the people. The Chinese were free to abstain from either, but they were not free to prohibit them. No candid friend of Christianity and the missionaries can well shut his eyes to these facts. Dennett, Americans in Asia, p. 574.

QUITE the reverse of us, in Mexico labor can qualify as 100 per cent patriotic, while it is capital that is suspected of internationalism. Mexican labor is, indeed, fiercely nationalist, for the thing it most abhors and fears is the yoke of the foreign capitalist. Ross, *The Social Revolution in Mexico*, p. 105.

HOW CAN WE DEMOCRATIZE SOCIAL WORK?

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STUART A. QUEEN

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How can we democratize social work? The asking of this question evokes three types of responses. Some there are who insist that social work is democratic, and that therefore this is a useless question. Perhaps these people have notions of democracy akin to the late Mr. Harriman's idea of cooperation, viz., "to do what I tell them and do it quick."

The opposite extreme is to be found among those who maintain that social work not only is undemocratic, but that by its very nature it is thoroughly incompatible with democracy. They hold it to be so bound up with a system of social castes and industrial exploitation that the only way to democratize social work is to abolish it, and with it all those social and economic conditions which have produced it. Both the radicals and the conservatives usually identify social work with charity, which, for all practical purposes, means the offering of goods or services without expectation of the usual remuneration.

A third position, which it is the purpose of this paper to present, is that social work has been frankly undemocratic, but a change is taking place and the future holds out prospects of a democratized social work. This new profession has appeared largely as a by-product of charity. It developed where class lines were clearly drawn. It has been financed and administered very much in the spirit of big business. But for all that, we see in social work a type of skilled service which may be utilized properly and to advantage by a democratically organized society.

This is neither the time nor the place for an exposition of democracy or of social work as such. Let the paragraphs which follow indicate the sense in which each of these terms is used. Suffice it to say here that the problem of democratizing social work seems not essentially different from the problems of democratizing law, medicine, teaching, and all other professional services.

Now in order that we may not give our imagination free rein, but may harness it for the task of finding a solution to our problem, let us consider some things that have been happening in the field of social work. To be specific, let us

examine social work in industry.

Since the work of Robert Owen at New Lanark in 1800, there has been an increasing number of employers who recognized the more obvious needs of their workers and who sought to do something for them. They provided "model" houses, playgrounds, reading-rooms, schools, day-nurseries, medical services, and more recently, personnel officers. In all this there has been a great variety of motives, but an interesting similarity of results. Sometimes the employers have sought through their "welfare work" to improve discipline, increase efficiency and quiet agitation. At other times they have been genuine philanthropists who, not having seen the vision of industrial democracy, honestly devoted themselves to the uplift of their workmen.

In either case the result has been essentially the same. There has been a failure to develop initiative, responsibility and participation by the employees in controlling the conditions under which they live and work. That this failure is due to no oversight on the part of employers is made plain by the conventional business man's attitude toward organized labor.

The very essence of employers' welfare work is contained in the definition used by the United States Bureau

of Labor Statistics; viz., "Anything for the comfort and improvement, intellectual or social, of the employees, over and above wages paid, which is not a necessity of the industry nor required by law." In other words, it is regarded essentially as a gratuity. It represents patronage rather than cooperation, and benevolence rather than justice.

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But a change has been taking place, particularly during the last quarter of a century. The field hitherto occupied by employers' welfare work is being occupied by other activities which bid fair to eliminate the former before many decades have passed. First of all, individual employers and corporations are developing "service departments" which attend to health, safety, education, etc., as "necessities of the industry," and for the frankly avowed purpose of business success, with no pretence of philanthropy. Second, the State is stepping in and requiring many things previously left to the discretion and benevolence of the individual employer or corporation. I refer to factory inspection, minimum wage, industrial accident insurance, child labor laws, etc. Finally, and probably most important, is the independent organization of working people for their own advancement. I have in mind not merely the conventional activities of trade unions, but such enterprises as the labor colleges, union health centers, insurance funds, credit unions, banks, etc. I heard the president of a cigar-makers' union bespeak the wisdom of his union in employing a social case worker.

Now these things are actually going on. They are not the product of some sociologist's imagination. They are happening in real life. What is their significance? Do they mean the disappearance of social work from industry? I think not. Rather do they seem to indicate the probable increase of real social work in industry; but social work rendered to industrial workers at their own request and paid for by them.

It would be interesting—and requisite to adequate testing of our thesis-to see whether the development of other phases of social work is in the same direction. But space forbids. Instead, I shall merely suggest a few sources of data bearing on this question. The trend of child welfare work is well outlined by a comparison of two documents: the first circular of the New York Children's Aid Society in 1853 and Mr. Thurston's report to the National Conference of Social Work in 1918. The trends of "Americanization" are admirably set forth in that series of volumes which has grown out of the studies conducted under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation. For light on family social work, compare the report on Charity Organization to the 1893 meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction with Miss Richmond's latest book. For the changes in neighborhood and community work, read first Picht's "Toynbee Hall and the English Settlement Movement;" then read Dinwiddie's report on the Cincinnati Social Unit.

What clues have we discovered, which may lead to the democratization of social work? The first is that in our modern division of labor there is need for a type of skilled service which appeared first under the guise of charity. The sources of financial support should not be permitted to becloud this fact. "As far ahead as we can see there will be people whose family relations will break down, people who do not get on with their fellow workmen, people who misunderstand and are misunderstood by their neighbors, people who need to break with old associates and to form new friendships, and others who too greatly subordinate the common welfare to the gain of themselves, their families or cliques. To help such folk find, revise or restore their place in society is the distinctive task of the social worker."

¹ Queen, Social Work in the Light of History, p. 322.

A second suggestion is to have social work supported directly or indirectly by the people served; if not in the way we pay our doctor's bills, perhaps in the way we support our public school system. Steps have already been taken in this direction. We already have numerous tax-supported social-work activities. Our community chests are increasing the number of givers until they reach a very large proportion of the people who receive incomes from any source. In New York social case workers help to administer industrial accident insurance. Still another method of financing would be through the organization of small, homogeneous and autonomous groups, each employing one or more professional workers to render the skilled service desired by the groups.

This brings us naturally to the third clue. There must be a functional integration of professional groups with the public served. How can this be effected? There is no easy answer, but we have several suggestions. The social unit experiment in Cincinnati is full of hints. The self-Americanization of immigrant groups and the new activities of trade unions deserve the close attention of all who would find a solution to this problem.

All in all, we seem justified in believing that social work, which arose under thoroughly undemocratic auspices, is actually becoming more in harmony with the democratic spirit. But we dare not be unduly optimistic. We have yet a long way to go before social work is a profession, practised by democratically organized groups of scientifically trained specialists, whose skilled services are at the disposal of democratically organized communities and states.



A PERSON using social science to solve social problems is doing social work. Halbert, What Is Professional Social Work? p. 20.

GROUP APPRAISALS OF SELECTED OFFENSES¹

EVERETT J. NELSON

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It is conceded by all that the public appraisal of antisocial acts is little more crystallized than the popular evaluation of political policies and that society's opinion is in a continual fluctuation and change parallel to social, economic, and political interests. In view of this variation of opinion for different groups, copies of the questionnaire set forth in Table II were given to the following groups for the purpose of determining the amount of such variation between the different groups and to compare their ideas of the seriousness of crimes with the judgment of the courts, for the courts in passing sentence are thought to reflect the public's will:

TABLE I

Groups Answering Questionnaire

GROUP	MEN	WOMEN	MIXED
Lower Division Students	115	144	MIADO
Upper Division Students	42	86	
Faculty Club	26		
Sunday School Class	59		
Building Trades Union	27		
Laundry Workers Union			30
202110	269	230	30
TOTALS	209	230	30
GRAND TOTAL			529

¹ This study was made under the direction of Professor R. D. McKenzie.

The Lower Division Students are first and second year students at the University of Washington; the Upper Division Students are of the junior and senior classes. The Faculty Club comprises some of the men members of the University teaching force. The Sunday School Class is the adult men's class in the University Christian Church and is composed of ministers, lawyers, doctors, teachers, business men, mechanics, laborers—in short, is representative of practically all groups of men. It is interesting to note that about one-third of the blank questionnaires given to this group were spoiled or returned unmarked. The Building Trades Union, comprehending plumbers, roofers, carpenters, painters, laborers, steam-fitters, sheet-metal workers, and like trades, appeared to be among the most cooperating and intelligent of all the groups. The Laundry Workers Union membership includes both men and women, about equally divided. Only about one-third of the blanks given out at this meeting were filled in correctly so that they could be used in computation of opinion. Although the labor union leaders were most cooperative and aided the members in understanding how to mark the questionnaire, a great number of the women were either so apathetic or so unintelligent that they could not properly fill out the sheet.

Each group's opinion as to the seriousness of each crime in relation to the others was determined by assigning weights to the votes according to the rank, that is, all first places were given a weight of ten, second places a weight of nine, thirds, eight, and so on down to tenth place which was weighted one. All weighted votes for each crime were added together and then the crimes ranked according to the total weight received by each, the highest rank being designated by a figure 1, and thus following down to 10 for the lowest rank as per instructions in the questionnaire. Also the court sentences given in these cases were rated

TABLE II

Sample Questionnaire

Name	Occupation
or severe than of think is the most think the next s	which crimes, in your estimation, are more serious thers by placing a figure 1 in front of the one you t serious of all, a figure 2 in front of the one you erious, a figure 3 before the next one, and so on whole list of ten crimes. (These are actual cases e records.)
	Do not mark any two the same.
(A)	Man, aged 19, entered a room and stole a suit of clothes.
(B)	A man found a check for \$190.45 which some- one else had lost. He forged an endorsement and cashed it.
(C)	Man, 39 years old, was found with 17 ounces of dope in his possession.
(D)	Man, aged 30, had carnal knowledge of a 12-year-old girl.
(E)	Man confessed to burglary of 20 or more residences.
(F)	Man grabbed lady's purse on Second Avenue.
(G)	Man stole Marmon car in San Francisco and brought it to Seattle where he was caught.
(H)	Man stole \$20 worth of copper wire from the Milwaukee Railroad Co.
(I)	Man robbed a till in Seattle hotel of \$90.
(J)	Man maliciously composed and published in a newspaper of general circulation an article stating that George Washington owned chat- tel and indentured slaves, that he was an in- veterate drinker and a profane and blasphe-
	mous man.

Please state here what type of crime you believe to be the most injurious to the welfare of the community at the present time.

according to severity. The different rankings of all the groups are set forth in Table III, the crimes being designated by capital letters, A to J, inclusive, as shown in parentheses before each crime in Table II.

TABLE III
Rankings of the Crimes

Crime	Court Sentence	Bldg. Trades	Laundry Workers	S. S. Class	Faculty Club	³ Lower Division Students
D	1	1	1	1	- 1	1
E	2	3	3	3	2	3
A	3	8	8	9	8	9
В	4	6	4	5	5	4
G	5	5	6	6	4	5
J	6	9	7	4	10	7
F	7	4	5	7	7	8
C	8	2	2	2	3	2
H	9	10	10	10	9	10
I	10	7	9	8	6	6

Crime	*Upper Division Students	Upper Division Men	All Students	All Men	All Women	All groups together
D	1 .	1 .	1	1	1	1
E	3	3	.3	3	3	3
A	9	8	9	9	10	9
В	4	4	4	4	4	4
G	5	5	5	5	5	5
J	10	10	7	8	8	8
F	7	7	8	7	7	7
C	2	2	2	2	2	2
H	8	9	10	10	9	10
I	6	6	6	6	6	6

³ The separate rankings for Lower Division Men and for Lower Division Women are the same as for all Lower Division Students combined.

⁶ The ranking for all Upper Division Students combined is the same as for the Upper Division Women.

From these rankings we find that all groups were of the opinion that D (the sex crime) constitutes the worst offense and that all, except one, the Faculty Club, were agreed that C (dope possession) is next in seriousness. Every crime, except A, H, and I, were given votes for all ranks, that is, from one to ten; and these three exceptions were given votes for all ranks except No. 1. As shown above, the laboring groups rated crime H (stealing from the railroad company) as least serious. On several of the questionnaires from these groups, instead of assigning a rank to both crimes H and I, there was written on the line, "no crime," and in one case, "good job," which seem to indicate that stealing from big business enterprises is considered all right.

To determine the agreement between the different groups, all rankings were inter-correlated, Karl Pearson's method being used. Some of the most significant coefficients are here given. All correlations are quite high, the highest being a perfect agreement which is between the total number of men of all groups and the total men and women of all groups combined. Among the lowest inter-correlations are the following:

(1)	Building Trades Union with Faculty Club	.71
(2)	Upper Division Students with Sunday School Class	.72
(3)	Building Trades Union with Sunday School Class	.77
(4)	Lower Division Students with Building Trades Union	.78

Contrary to ordinary expectation, the adult Sunday School Class, with a coefficient of .87 (correlated with the total groups combined), ranked the crimes most unlike the ranking of the total combined groups. As was stated above, this group contained such representative members of all groups, one would naturally presume that it would correlate most highly with the total number of judges. In view of the fact that all the coefficients are high and as we have no other evidence, it is impossible to assign a reason for this difference but we are at least inclined to believe that the religious element is a factor in the cause.

In comparing the coefficients among the women, it is found that the Lower Division Women Students, with a coefficient of .975, correlate most highly with all the women combined, while the Laundry Workers had the lowest, .88. The Lower Division Men Students show greatest agreement with the total number of men in all groups, the coefficient being .988. The lowest men's group with the total men was the Sunday School Class with an agreement of .87. In comparing the rankings of the different groups of men with those of the total number of women, the Lower Division Men correlate highest with a coefficient of .85. The Lower Division Women, with a correlation of .988, shows the highest agreement of any group of women with all the men. In this respect, the Laundry Workers held the lowest place with an agreement represented by .90.

It must be admitted that the correlations of the court sentences with the rankings of the different groups cannot be taken as showing the absolute difference between public opinion and the court's reflection of public opinion because of the many circumstances that surround each criminal case that could not be presented in the questionnaire. In all cases, however, the police records did not show any previous criminal record connected with the perpetrator of each offense. But, notwithstanding this inadequacy, the coefficients of correlation do not give us sufficient evidence to warrant our believing that there is neither a perfect, a zero, nor a negative correlation between

the courts and the public at large, and that the coefficient which shows the relation of the courts to popular sentiment lies somewhere between .30 and .60. This objection of insufficient particulars is practically eliminated when correlations between different groups are computed because each individual and group had exactly the same evidence upon which to base the decision. The coefficients obtaining between the groups and court sentences are given in Table IV.

TABLE IV

Correlations of Groups with Court Sentences

	Coe	ficient of	Correlation
GROUP	MEN	WOMEN	BOTH COMBINED
Lower Division Students	.44	.44	.44
Upper Division Students	.43	.36	.36
All Students Combined			.44
Faculty Club	.49		
Sunday School Class	.42		
Laundry Workers Union			.58
Building Trades Union	.43		
All Groups	.43	.36	.43

From Table IV we find that the Laundry Workers correlate highest of all with the court sentences, that the total Upper Division Students, the Upper Division Women separately, and the women of all groups tie for the lowest place in agreement. In all groups where there is a division of the sexes, except with the Lower Division Students, the men correlate higher with the court sentences than do the women. Highest among the men is the Faculty Club, and lowest, the adult Sunday School Class.

As before stated, all crimes, except A, H, and I, were given votes for every rank of severity. This brings up the

question of agreement on the position to be held by each offense. To ascertain the amount of agreement (or disagreement), the coefficients of dispersion (based on the average deviation from the arithmetical average) for each crime was computed for the 230 women and the 269 men separately (excluding the Laundry Workers, being a mixed group) and also for the total number of men and women taken together, excluding none, the total number being 529. Table V sets forth these coefficients.

TABLE V

Coefficients of Dispersion

CRIME	MEN	WOMEN	BOTH TOGETHER
A	.45	.48	.46
В	.34	.27	.33
C	.19	.17	.18
D	.09	.09	09
E	.22	.24	.22
F	.44	.44	.45
G	.27	.25	.24
H	.40	.36	.40
I	.26	.23	.27
J	.75	.76	.76
Average	.34	.33	.34

From the coefficients of dispersion, we find that the agreement of the judges on the different anti-social acts is as shown in Table VI.

Thus, the rankings according to dispersion are the same for the Men, Women, and Both Together except in the three crimes, E, I, and G, and both sexes combined produce a different ranking than that of either separate. By these coefficients we are shown that people are most agreed on the sex crime, which fact is significant, for it points out that, in spite of the taboo on discussion of such delin-

quencies and the lack of inter-communication of ideas on them, public opinion is nevertheless quite definitely crystallized on such sexual relations. The common agreement on this delinquency is emphatically brought out when we consider that, in all groups combined, this crime received

TABLE VI

Agreement of Judges
(From greatest to least agreement)

1	D	D	D
2	C	C	C
3	E	I	E
4	I		G
5	G	E G	C E G I
6	В		
6	H F	B H F	H
8	F	F	B H F
9	A	A	A
10	J	J	J

a weight of 4,983 out of a possible weight of 5,290. The next greatest agreement is in regard to dope traffic. The fact that the dope crime, C, has been placed second in seriousness and is second in agreement can very probably be accounted for by the great amount of newspaper publicity of the last two years against narcotics, which publicity has attempted to give to dope such a ruinous place as to be actually undermining the moral, physical, and mental young America. The position of J—the George Washington libel case—as having less agreement can perhaps be explained by the fact that such a type of crime, the libeling of the dead, has seldom, if ever, been called to public attention and, consequently, has received little, if any, consideration by the people, resulting in no definitely

formed common sentiment. Furthermore, the great dispersion in J can, in some degree, be assigned to the historical knowledge of the judges. From the impression on the writer in presenting the questionnaire at the different meetings, he inferred that the people divided themselves into two quite distinct groups on this crime, those believing the libel to be true and those believing it to be false. Moreover, this inference is borne out by the fact that in practically all cases the votes on this crime were concentrated close to the two extremes, ranks No. 1 and 10, with very few being cast for ranks No. 6, 7, and 8.

In answer to the question asking what type of crime one believes the most injurious to the welfare of the community at the present time, numerous and divers answers were received. "Dope" appeared most often—in fact, about as often as all others together. Sex crimes held second place. Other answers were slander, burglary, murder, bootlegging, graft, "war of conquest," malfeasance in office, "forced idleness," "labor without just returns," police and judicial graft, "destructive criticism of God, State, and Individual," mediocracy (first being written "democracy" but changed).



Cooperation is the device which enables the small-holders of Europe to keep their place side by side with the capitalist farmers. Irvine, *The Making of Europe*, p. 185.

Social work is the business of producing, changing or adjusting social organization and procedure in the interests of human welfare according to scientific standards. Halbert, What Is Professional Social Work? p. 25.

If a board of arbitration finds that a strike was lawful, i. e., a protest against some wrong done or right withheld by the employer, it may order him to pay the strikers all or a part of the wages they have lost. Ross, *The Social Revolution in Mexico*, p. 119.

APPLIED SOCIOLOGY IN RELATION TO SOCIAL WORK

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THE NATIONAL Conference of Social Work, which held its fiftieth anniversary meeting last May in Washington, is the greatest gathering in the world for the exchange of experiences between persons engaged in the application of scientific knowledge for the betterment of human life. There were four thousand registered delegates and additional thousands attended the meetings as auditors. England, France, Belgium, Switzerland, Poland, and Germany were represented by speakers who were guests of the Conference; and delegates were present from Canada, Japan, India, Mexico, Denmark, Persia, Holland, Austria, Turkey and Nicaragua. This broadening of the influence of the Conference was promoted further by the choice of Toronto as the next place of meeting, and by the acceptance of plans presented by Dr. Rene Sand for the organization of an international conference of social work. Truly here is the beginning of a world-wide movement in applied sociology. An inductive study of such a movement will enable students to witness in process of realization dynamic sociology, or conscious social evolution.

Contact with active efforts to influence actual conditions has given this Conference superior vitality. It outgrew rapidly its parent, the American Social Science Association; and although the American Sociological Society in its initial meeting voted down a resolution expressing a desire for close cooperation with older organizations of persons engaged in social work, this more academic group

is retaining the allegiance of the younger generation of scholars by transferring its interest from the formulation of theories to research in the rapidly expanding field claimed by social workers. Since 1874 the majority of the members of the National Conference have been engaged in continuous efforts to discover causes and remedies for social maladjustments, to combat conditions which produce crime, sickness and poverty, and to bring about readjustments which will increase human welfare and happiness. The fact that these efforts have been focused on individuals or on local situations, and have had but little consciousness of significance in general social evolution, increases rather than weakens their validity as material for inductive generalizations.

Considerable temerity is required in the sociologist who ventures to formulate such generalizations. Some of them are sufficiently obvious for acceptance without debate, but others must be regarded as tentative, and subject to revision or more exact statement after criticism. They are submitted with the hope of stimulating such consideration

by students and teachers of sociology.

The first ten years of the Conference considered chiefly the extent of crime and pauperism, policies for the administration of public relief, the amount and causes of criminality, and methods of administering institutions designed for the discipline or custodial care of persons who were burdens or menaces to fellow members of society. May we claim that applied sociology begins with the recognition of the obligation of the group to find means of care for its individual members who are incompetents, misfits, or guilty of encroachments on the rights of others?

A better understanding of social and economic conditions was won during the second decade of the Conference. The development of charity organization societies and of social settlements brought to its meetings groups of gifted

men and women whose lives were devoted to efforts at guidance and rehabilitation of families whose members found it impossible to maintain themselves in our economic system, and to the gaining of a better understanding of social conditions by residence in and systematic study of the crowded and impoverished sections of great cities. Our second generalization is hardly debatable: Applied sociology must be based on a knowledge of actual social conditions. Some may question the claim that an active or constructive approach to problems of individual or community adjustments is a more effective and scientific method of discovering and verifying the laws of society than a passive, objective, more or less deductive or philosophical study of social phenomena.

Accumulating experiences of persons administering relief, of settlement workers, and of the rapidly growing public health groups, embodied in the writings of Amos G. Warner, Jane Addams, Charles R. Henderson, Frederick H. Wines, Frank B. Sanborn and many other active members of the old Conference of Charities and Corrections made clear that sickness, unemployment, neglected childhood, defective education and bad living conditions rather than individual perversity were the chief causes of de-

pendency and delinquency.

Homer Folks in his presidential address gave this summary of the decades of Conference history: "The second decade emphasized human care—the correction of abuses and neglect. The third made the transition from care to cure. Its spirit was expressed in hospitals and nursing. In the fourth decade the thought of prevention became prominent, but rather as a profession of faith than as a working program. In the last decade the preventive program is a fruitful reality. . . . the preventive program possesses those virtues which are measurably lacking in cure and correction. Cure or correction is, as a rule, un-

certain, incomplete, temporary, expensive and slow. Prevention on the other hand is relatively certain, complete, permanent, cheap and quick."

Accepting this summary, we conclude that the method of applied sociology should be to discover through scientific study of the experiences of those endeavoring to deal constructively with individual misfits, what are the sources of failure and misery; or to anticipate the production of social burdens and misfits and focus attention on the elimination of evil conditions or on means of making individuals resistent to their influence. The breadth and complexity of such a program made necessary the adoption in 1917 of the new title "Conference of Social Work."

An examination of the varied programs of the fourteen sessions of the general conference and of over twenty-five kindred groups suggests two more generalizations: First, applied sociology is not being developed in the United States in accordance with a unified program expressing consistent, preconceived theories about the aims and methods of social progress. There is little uniformity in the degree of progress in the varied branches of social work, or in different sections of the country. As has often been observed, social changes in a democracy must wait upon the education and enlistment of support from local groups of citizens, and many factors of personal leadership and economic development determine the rates at which these may take place. Second, the new wine is being poured into old bottles. Older fundamental institutions—the home, the school, the church—were focusing points for the discussions of the Conference, which sought the reinterpretation and enlargement of their functions by the full utilization of scientific knowledge about the individual and group life of mankind.

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Sound health, or the promotion of vigorous, disease-free physical conditions is receiving more attention at the present time than any other phase of social work. This was evident not only in the special health program, but in practically all the section meetings nominally dealing with other subjects. This tendency may reveal the fundamental starting point of applied sociology, or may be the expression of a subconscious desire to retrieve the terrible race losses of the war.

The technique of diagnosis and of individual treatment which has been developed by the medical profession is the commonly accepted method of application of scientific knowledge in all branches of social work. Case work is universally conceded to be the most effective plan for the relief of poverty; and policies of investigation and individual adjustments first perfected in the progressive charity organization societies have been adopted by hospital social workers, by school nurses and visitors, and are being utilized even for the prevention of crime. Prof. Thomas D. Eliot reported that a school population of over two millions is now served by special agencies for careful case work with quasi-delinquent children.

A more universal significance was given to these concrete methods of social workers in the scholarly address of Dean Roscoe Pound. He summarized the transition from eighteenth century conceptions of abstract social relationships to modern considerations of the needs of real people. The political philosophy of the past talked about "man," provided punishment for "the criminal," waxed sentimental over "the child," considered how to treat "the disease;" while today we endeavor to measure out justice to the individual human being, to find what is necessary for the welfare of particular children, or to treat the man afflicted with the disease. He presented applied sociology as a form of social engineering which seeks to discover means of eliminating friction and waste, and of satisfying the desires of people living in a crowded world where there is much overlapping.

MINIMUM WAGES FOR WOMEN IN CALIFORNIA

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In 1912 certain investigations made by the California Bureau of Labor Statistics as to wages paid to women in the industries of the State, revealed the fact that many women were living below any normal standard, and that such subnormal living was having a most disastrous effect upon the health and morals of women workers.¹

On May 26, 1913, the Legislature of California passed a minimum wage law and created an Industrial Welfare Commission to determine the cost of living and to fix the minimum wage, maximum hours of labor, and the proper conditions of work for women and minors in industry. It was to be composed of five persons, one of whom should be a woman, appointed by the governor, for a term of four years.

The variation in the wording of living wage definitions in the various statutes in the United States is great. In Kansas it reads briefly: "adequate for maintenance" and "to supply the necessary cost of living," while in Minnesota it is stated much more explicitly: "sufficient to maintain the worker in health and supply . . . her with the necessary comforts and conditions of reasonable life." In California the law reads: "the amount necessary to supply the cost of proper living and to maintain the health and welfare of such workers."

The minimum wage is the lowest wage that can be paid

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^a Brief filed with the National Consumers' League, by the Industrial Welfare Commission of California, setting forth the experience of California under the operation of the Minimum Wage Law. Feb. 12, 1923.

^aCalifornia Minimum Wage Law, Sec. 6 (a) 1.

to experienced women and minors respectively, working in any industry in which the Industrial Welfare Commission has made wage orders, and the amount of the minimum wage is determined after the Commission has made investigation of the cost of living and has held wage boards and a public hearing. Under the authority given it by law, the Commission also fixes the rates and conditions of apprenticeship and limits the number of apprentices or learners that may be employed in any industry or establishment.

Investigation is at the discretion of the Commission, to determine the necessity of establishing a minimum wage in a given occupation. The Commissioner who is to act as chairman, calls a wage board for that industry, composed of an equal number of representatives of employers and employees. The board investigates the trade and reports to the Commission, recommending the minimum wage considered by them necessary. This recommendation the Commission may receive or reject at its pleasure, although it is the policy of the Commission to work with the board whenever possible. After a public hearing, the Commission fixes the wages of that trade.

Refusal to comply with the law is a misdemeanor, punishable by fine or imprisonment or both. If it is found that an employer has paid an employee a wage below the minimum, notwithstanding an agreement on the part of the employee to work for such lower wage, the Commission may recover such back wages for the employee, to-

gether with the cost of bringing suit.

The law now covers all occupations, trades, and industries in which women and minors are employed. Minors are defined as persons of either sex, below the age of eighteen. The exceptions to the law are women physically defective by age or otherwise, who may be granted a special renewable license by the Commission to work for a

wage less than the minimum, and apprentices, who are

paid special wages during apprenticeship.

In further restriction of the hours permitted by the Eight Hour Law, the Commission has limited the working hours of women, by prohibiting night work in certain industries and by making high overtime rates for overtime work in fish and fruit and vegetable canneries, and in fresh fruit packing houses, all of which are exempt from the provisions of the Eight Hour Law.³ The Commission has insured proper working conditions for women by the issuance of two sanitary orders, one regulating factories, canneries, and laundries, issued January 7, 1919, and the other effective in stores, issued February 17, 1920.

The one limitation placed upon the Commission is that it "shall not act as a board of arbitration during a strike

or lockout."4

In one of the first meetings of the Commission it was determined that the standard woman for the investigations of a minimum wage should be the self-dependent woman, one who received no help from other sources, and on whom there were no dependents.

In 1914 careful studies of the cost of living proved that \$9.63 was the minimum cost of proper living. It was also shown that 58.2% of the working women in the major industries of the state received less than \$10.00 a week.

In 1915 an exhaustive survey was made of the fruit and vegetable canning industry which showed that this industry employed, during the canning season, the largest number of women workers in any industry in the state. The survey also showed that wages as low as ten cents an hour, and working days of from twelve to fifteen hours prevailed. Following the survey the Commission, in February 1916, fixed a minimum wage in the fruit and vegetable

[&]quot;Women Workers, What California Has Done to Protect Them." 7.

^{*}Cal. Minimum Wage Law, Sec. 17.

canning industry of sixteen cents an hour, a ten hour day and twenty cents an hour for overtime. This was followed in 1917 and 1918 by a minimum wage of \$10.00 per week in the mercantile, laundry, fish canning, and manufacturing industry, professional offices, unskilled and unclassified occupations. Sanitary regulations were also issued to cover these industries.

In 1919 a detailed study was made of the cost of living and it was found that \$13.57 per week was the least amount that would provide the necessary cost of proper living for a woman worker. During 1919, orders were issued fixing a minimum wage of \$13.50 per week in all industries employing women and minors, except telegraph and telephone operators whose schedules of wages were then in excess of the minimum fixed by the State. In 1920, as a result of a new study of the cost of living, a \$16.00 minimum wage was established in all industries employing women and minors, with the exception of the telephone

and telegraph industry.

Investigation in April, 1922, showed that the cost of living had dropped to \$14.99 per week as compared with \$13.57 in 1919 and \$16.00 in 1920. With the belief that the cost of living would continue to drop, the Commission issued an order in the manufacturing and needle workers' industry setting the minimum wage at \$15.00 per week. Up to this time Labor Unions in California had taken a neutral attitude toward the Minimum Wage Commission, where they did not actively oppose it. Immediately, however, upon the issuance of the order, the Garment Workers' Union of San Francisco got out an injunction against the Commission to restrain them from cutting the minimum wage below \$16.00. The injunction was filed May 26, 1922. Before the matter was settled, the cost of liv-

⁸ Margaret Stump, Isabelle Evans, Anna Culberson and Lizzie Poysell, representing the Needle Trades Industry vs. the Industrial Welfare Commission of California.

ing had again risen, and the \$16.00 minimum has been maintained. Investigations carried on in September 1922, resulted in the reaffirming of the \$16.00 a week minimum by the Industrial Welfare Commission.

The Commission has in its records information gathered over a period of four years and covering 43,658 women in 2,491 establishments in 1919 to 59,036 women in 4,350 establishments in 1922. In view, therefore, of the large number of women in this survey, the information at its disposal may be considered conclusive.

The following things have been accomplished by the Commission in the canning industry: increase in wages, decrease in hours worked, and greatly improved sanitary conditions, assuring wholesomeness to the consumer as well as to the employee.

In the mercantile industry the Commission reports:

- 1. No establishment was forced out of existence by the order.
- 2. The number of employees was not decreased but increased 10 per cent.
 - 3. The minimum wage does not become the standard.
 - 4. The minimum wage does not become the maximum.
 - 5. The minimum wage is a real remedial measure.

Following investigation and issuance of orders in the laundry industry the Commission reports that no establishment was forced out of existence by the order. Employees did not lose their positions because of the order. The minimum did not become the standard. Better pay promoted general efficiency. The lowest pay groups have been eliminated and the number in other low pay groups has been restricted. The Commission has issued orders in general and professional offices, hotels and restaurants,

⁶Cal. I. W. C., Study of the Cost of Living, presented at the public hearing, San Francisco, Nov. 22, 1922.

¹ Ibid., Third Biennial Report, 48.

fish canning, citrus and agricultural industries, and un-

classified occupations.

Experience in California has proved that the employer who is compelled to advance the wages of certain workers does not equalize the cost by lowering the wages of his more competent employees, but instead, by increasing the efficiency of his force.

The effect of the administration of the minimum wage law has been to disarm any opposition and bring about the active cooperation of organized employers. Since 1913 six legislatures have met and at no time has any bill been introduced to repeal the minimum wage act or to materially curb the powers of the Commission. The Industrial Welfare Commission knows of no organized opposition at present to this law. On the contrary, at public hearings held in San Francisco and Los Angeles in December 1922, representatives of the largest employers' associations in the state expressed their satisfaction with the existing minimum wage of \$16.00.

There are two reasons for the active cooperation of the employers of California: They fully recognize the justice of the law, and most of them believe that the minimum wage has put competition on a higher basis of business morality and prevents the cutting of wages by unfair com-

petitors.

Ignoring the effect of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the minimum wage case testing the constitutionality of the District of Columbia minimum wage law, upon the operation of the law in California, the future work of the Commission, it may be said, is at present in grave danger on account of the economy budget of the state administration.

THE TEACHING OF SOCIOLOGY IN HIGH SCHOOL

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Sociology is one of the most interesting and valuable subjects to teach in high school. It is a subject where the progress of the student can be noted. As a rule I find that students registering for a high school course along this line, have very little idea as to what they are to study. At the beginning of the course I ask them to write the answers to certain questions. Some of these are the following: What is sociology? What is the problem of immigration? Is there any relation between wages and immigration? These papers I keep until the last week of the semester. At that time I ask the same questions and then return both papers for the students themselves to grade. The comparison of the two is always amusing to them, and brings them to a new realization of the field with which they have become acquainted and of the progress which they have made.

Because of this newness, I spend considerable time in building up a sociological vocabulary. From this vocabulary and from concrete examples within their own experience, they learn to make for themselves most of the definitions necessary on which to build their later work.

Two fundamentals, however, I consider most essential: first, to develop among the students the feeling of group and social consciousness; and second, a sociological point of view. I feel that until these are established and reestablished other things sink to a position of unimportance.

The first point is really no more than developing the idea of how to live together and emphasizing the point

that we are all members of groups working for the good of human beings. The method of working out this idea is a scientific one. It must be pointed out that there are causal relationships which must be interpreted and thoroughly understood and that only by doing this do we gain a feeling of interdependence and become a more useful member of the group because of the better understanding of our fellow men. The major emphasis thus is laid in both direct and indirect ways upon the principle of socialization. The sociological point of view is developed in order to bring about the realization of the fact that there are always two or more sides to every social question and that false conclusions drawn upon unsound premises may

retard progress and cause untold hardships.

An outline of the subjects to be covered is given the students. Last semester this outline dealt with groups, groups as affected by geography, heredity, health, education, the family group, the industrial groups, group control, and group progress. The text required by law is Towne's Social Problems. However, I give much supplementary material, for in the development of the two fundamental points I feel this supplementary material is a real necessity. Not only does Towne fail to develop the points I desire to bring out in the course, but he places too much emphasis on the pathological side. Sociology is really the study of a normal society and for that reason the book, Introduction to Sociology (1922 edition), by Bogardus is more usable. He emphasizes the constructive side of a normal society, discusses personality, and stresses the idea of group phenomena, and shows the pathological side of society only in its relation to the normal.

A bibliography, covering the best books, magazines, and pamphlets in the various fields accompanies the outline. One copy of the bibliography is in card index form and any new references found by the students are added to the

file. In this way they are contributing something which will be of value to future classes, and furthers interest in searching for materials. The field is so large that in a onesemester course only a small portion of each field can be touched, but I feel it is most valuable if pupils know where to go to find certain materials when data on a particular subject are needed.

For outside reading, a minimum of five hundred pages for the semester is required. The reading must cover each major section of the outline but the amount read on each section is determined somewhat by the interest of the student. Once a month I collect the notebooks and credit the reading. The outside reading can be either outlined or summarized, depending upon the type of material read. The students are urged to keep their reading up every week. If at the end of the month I find them falling too far behind, a weekly report is required until they reach

the average amount due for that particular date.

Instead of a term paper, which the majority of students dislike, I have what may be called term projects. The pupils can work individually or in committees of two, three, or four, depending upon the subject chosen. For example, in each one of my classes in the study of the family, I ask each member to make a budget for a family of five. Some eighteen items are given which must be covered and certain uniform conditions specified. These one hundred and twenty budgets, are then given to a committee of three who tabulate the figures and determine the average amounts spent for various items, such as food, rent, maintenance, clothing, recreation, and insurance. group next works out percentages and makes a comparative graph using for the other set of figures those given by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the latter of course, being based upon figures gathered in many communities. It is always interesting to note how their own estimates compare with the actual figures of the Bureau. Another committee will perhaps be working on a second unit of the same question showing a comparison in the cost of living in twenty representative cities in the United States with the cost in Los Angeles. In assigning subjects for projects I try to localize as much as possible. I have a list now, of some ninety topics. This list keeps growing continually. If any student is interested in any particular field, he may, upon consultation, be allowed to work upon it.

I shall suggest a few of the topics, and note the method

used.

1. A Study of the Immigrants in the Los Angeles City Schools.

2. Adult Education in the Los Angeles Schools.

These subjects were worked out by a committee of five. The work of visiting in schools was divided among them and then from the combined data two excellent charts were compiled from which very interesting conclusions were drawn.

3. The Milk Supply of Los Angeles.

This project was worked out by a student who was particularly interested in dairying. It consisted of an eight page booklet containing a copy of the city ordinance on that subject, a copy of the State Dairy laws, copies of regulations posted in various dairies and milk depots, a copy of the monthly tests of the various creameries and dairies supplying Los Angeles, and a summary of the student's findings.

4. Thefts in Los Angeles.

This also was worked out in booklet form. It consisted of eight graphs of statistics. Opposite each of these was an explanation placed under three headings: Definition—Authority—Value of the Statistics.

5. Steps in Becoming a Citizen.

Presented in outline form, and accompanied by the course of study for immigrants in the night schools, copies of the various blanks which must be filed, and a list of some of the prominent naturalized citizens.

- 6. Foreign Centers in Los Angeles.
- 7. Organization of the George Junior Republic at Chino, Calif.
- 8. Organization of the Los Angeles County Charities.
- 9. Analysis of the Yearly Report of the Los Angeles County Charities.
- 10. A Directory of the Charitable Institutions of Los Angeles.
- 11. Organization of the California State Charities.

The above five were all developed in chart form.

12. Opportunities in Social Work.

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A survey of positions open in various fields, salaries paid, education and experience required, and a collection of civil service blanks to accompany that particular section.

13. A Sociological Who's Who.

Loose leaf form and can be supplemented each semester.

14. A Survey of Sociology Courses in Various Universities.

This project acquaints the students with the leading sociologists throughout the country and the special courses that are given in that subject.

15. Sources for Sociological Materials.

Card index form. Indicates name, address, price and nature of material.

Collection of Social Cartoons, Poems, Proverbs, and Advertisements.

Scrap book form and supplemented each semester.

17. Snap Shot Book of Good and Bad Housing.

Actual pictures taken in and about Los Angeles.

18. Child Labor Laws.

Letters sent to various states for copy of law and material marked and annotated. Given to the library for reference material.

19. A Study of the Commercialized Amusements in Los Angeles.

One committee worked out a chart comparing revenue derived from amusements with amount expended for education.

20. An Original Social Story, Poem, or Play.

Have had several of each and very worthy ones.

These are only a few of the subjects selected at random, but which will give a little idea of the work. Every student knows what subjects were chosen and any material he finds along any of these lines he turns over to that committee. This is the third year I have used this plan and I am convinced from the point of view of interest, value, and results, that projects surpass term papers to an aston-

ishing degree.

Current Events are studied as class work once every two weeks. At that time a student chairman is appointed and the class engages in a distinctly socialized recitation. A record of current events, called a Sociology Log, is kept by each one in scrap book form. These events are classified and hence are usable as ready references; they constitute an important part of any course in high school

sociology.

Among some of the students who had completed the semester's course in Sociology arose a desire to continue with some work along that line. As a result an organization which the pupils finally called the Utopian Club was formed, and the results have been gratifying. The members resolved themselves into two classes, active and associate. The active members are the advanced students. (In other words those who have completed one semester's work.) The associate members are students enrolled in the sociology classes. The purpose of the club is to arouse interest in the course, carry on some advanced work and study, to secure speakers in special fields to address the classes, and to publish from time to time a little paper which is called the Sociologian. It is similar to a regular newspaper in character, running an editorial section, book review column, a column known as Prominent Sociologists, and covers events of local and national interest to students of sociology, and features. The paper is printed in the school print shop and edited by the members of the Utopian Club themselves; in all it is a creditable piece of work, and tends to arouse much interest.

The object, after all, of education is to make better citi-

zens of our youth and I feel that the study of sociology is a strong factor in accomplishing this end. The field of the social sciences is large and of course sociology is only one of the group. In most cases, according to a recent survey made by the Social Science Association of Southern California, sociology appears in the high school curriculum in the senior year. The tendency today in curriculum making is to have through the junior and senior high schools six consecutive years of the social sciences. If this program is adopted and carried out, the problem of the twelfth year sociology teacher is going to be greatly diminished, for the sociological attitude and point of view of the student is going to be largely developed before the pupils reach her, and the senior year will be left much freer for more intensive work.

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JUDGES should specialize along the lines of their individual interests, just as physicians specialize in their profession. White, Insanity and the Criminal Law, p. 150.

Courts are bitterly in need of the help that psychiatrists can give them but they cannot get that help where they persist in treating the psychiatrist like a pickpocket who offers it. White, *Insanity and the* Criminal Law, p. 255.

But whether we like or trust each other or not we all have to live together in a world which is becoming smaller every day—and we must either fight each other or cooperate. The basis of cooperation must be understanding. Dennett, America in Asia, p. viii.

As a matter of fact, the most highly privileged are not those who have money, but those who have possession—above all price—of their full potential selves. Woods, *The Neighborhood in Nation-Building*, p. 181.

It was not humanity which created the family, but in a real sense the family which created humanity. Woods, The Neighborhood in Nation-Building, p. 147.

EVIDENCES OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

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In order that this analysis might be the expression of the judgments of a number of persons instead of one person, a total of 141 persons were asked to assist. They included public school teachers, ministers, business men, Federal Board men, and post graduate university men and women, each of whom had studied the processes of social interaction. Each was asked to choose an outstanding leader in American life and history who illustrates the principle of democratic leadership, and to indicate three or more things which this leader did or has done that are evidences of the democracy of his leadership. The emphasis thus was placed on action, conduct, behavior rather than upon subjective traits, such as generosity or nobility of character, because the existence of these subjective traits is probably proved only by conduct over a period of time. The best evidences of leadership of any kind are found, not in what one person thinks about a so-called leader, but in what the alleged leader actually does.1

When the 436 evidences of democratic leadership that were cited by the 141 judges were examined it was found that 48 were stated "subjectively" and hence were discarded, leaving 388 evidences available for study. The analysis was difficult, partly because of an overlapping of evidences; certain evidences came under two or three headings. The results showed eight different types of evidences of the democracy of leadership.

¹The "subjective" is perhaps more important than the "objective" nature of human life, but it is evidently through the objective that the subjective is best known.

(1) The first grouping into which many "evidences" fell, referred to "increasing the welfare of other persons." Representative evidences of this type together with the name of the leader in each case are given herewith:

Led the movement for giving votes to women (Susan B. Anthony).

Originated the normal school for the training of teachers (Horace Mann).

Provided industrial training for fellow negroes (Booker T. Washington).

Brought classic music within the reach and appreciation of the masses (Theodore Thomas).

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Manufactured inexpensive motor cars for the common people (Ford).

(2) A second group of the evidences of democratic leadership gives a somewhat different emphasis. In these cases it is the welfare of the group, as such, to which reference is made. It is the nation group, the labor group, the world group in whose behalf effort is expended.

Formed a nation out of discordant colonists (Washington). Held the United States together (Lincoln). Made the whole country's welfare his reason for a conservation program (Roosevelt, Pinchot). Established and maintained a confederate organization composed of many varieties of local labor unions (Gompers). Spoke and wrote for world friendship and world democracy (Wilson).

(3) The evidences of democratic leadership also indicated how the respective leaders have taken the side of weakness against power and of injustice against special privilege.

Struck off the shackles from enslaved Negroes (Lincoln). Fought the trusts to a standstill and urged on every hand a square deal for the weak (Roosevelt).

Supported helpless women in industry against corporate greed (Brandeis).

Championed immigrants and the poon when in trouble (Jane Addams).

Took the part of the "kids" (Ben Lindsey).

(4) Another uniformity into which many of the evidences of democratic leadership are found relates to the leader's showing an at-one-ness with the humbler members of his groups and voicing their best reactions, which was illustrated as follows:

Identified himself with the philosophy of Poor Richard (Franklin).

In simple speech and deed he voiced the ideals of the peas-

antry (Lincoln).

Rode to Washington on horse-back without attendants, tied nis horse to the fence and walked unceremoniously into the Senate Chamber for his inauguration as president (Jefferson).

Did not hesitate to talk, dine, or work with the plainest citizen (Roosevelt).

Never forsook the poor and the defeated classes, living always after their fashion (Jane Addams).

This at-one-ness is sometimes simulated in order to take advantage of the unthinking. Tammany's hold over the East Side is due to what is alleged to be partly feigned attitudes. In season and out Tammany can count on support irrespective of the qualifications of the opposing candidates for office. The explanation is found in the activities of Tammany precinct captains who are "on the job" continually of identifying themselves with the peoples' immediate problems. It has been said that if there is an eviction the precinct captain is present to render help; if there is an arrest, the captain goes to court with the one charged with guilt; if there is sickness, the captain arrives ahead of the priest; and if there is a death the cap-

tain is on hand before the undertaker comes. The charges of graft against Tammany need not obscure the fact that the at-one-ness principle is operative and effective.

(5) Another trend of democratic leadership is found in the habit of consulting with authorities, even opponents, before acting.

Put opponents in the Cabinet (Lincoln).

Put abler men than himself in the Cabinet (Harding).

Called in and consulted with persons of opposing beliefs as a basis for action (Roosevelt).

In educational situations, tries to understand the point of view of all persons concerned (J. R. Angell).

(6) A tendency to use the discussion method of securing adjustments is stressed in the evidences of democratic leadership. This procedure differs from the fifth classification in that the leader subordinates himself more definitely. The decision is more apt to be left to the group of consultants including the given leader.²

Called a peace conference between the Russians and Japanese in 1905 (Roosevelt).

Called a conference on the limitation of armaments (Harding).

Established the open forum (Coleman).

(7) Other evidences of democratic leadership relate to the methods of carrying out decisions when they have once been determined upon.

He made people feel that he was their servant rather than their overlord (Lincoln).

He led the way and others were stimulated to follow (Roosevelt).

By his genial ways he gave new hope and faith to any group in which he moved (Phillips Brooks).

³ The merits of this method are brought out strongly by M. P. Follett in *The New State* (Longmans, Green: 1920), ch. XIV.

In his delightfully interesting autobiography, Alexander Johnson³ explains the democratic method of a friend in these words: He never said, Go; he always said, Come. In other words, leadership that is called democratic rarely drives; it attracts, magnetises; it arouses one's social nature and offers cooperation. It consists in wanting people to feel toward you "as loving children do to their father."4 In referring to his own methods of leadership, Mr. Johnson declares that a leader (of the type of which we are now thinking) will not preclude his followers from challenging his decisions or from giving criticism. When a decision is questioned the democratic leader will give explanations both willingly and cheerfully; otherwise, he will not be fit to lead. The significance of the statement: And I, if I be lifted up from the earth, will draw all men unto me,5 is found in the fact that a wholly self-sacrificing, attracting personality is being lifted up and not a driving, selfish one.

(8) The eighth type of evidences of democratic leadership emphasizes rendering service without expectation of reward. Profits, position, power—none of these mundane and material enticements appeal. A cause is espoused for its own sake even though it cost the leader his life. It is only when a leader acts without accepting reward over a long period of time that his conduct may be accounted

wholly unselfish.

He refused to be made a king (Washington). He sought neither wealth, rank, power, nor any other reward for his services to his country (Lincoln).

In examining the eight aforementioned types of evidences of democratic leadership it is seen that they fall into five classes. (1) The first three types relate to the

* Ibid, p. 197. * John 12:32.

Adventures in Social Welfare (Terre Haute, Indiana, 1923), p. 84.

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welfare of other persons as the goal which is sought. (2) The fourth type reveals characteristic manner of living of the democratic leader, as a basis for representing the unexpressed natures of the masses of the people rather than merely an intellectual élite. (3) Types five and six disclose manner of coming to a decision. Type five retains autocratic elements and may be considered semi-democratic. (4) The seventh type explains the democratic method of carrying out decisions, of getting things done, of securing action. (5) The last mentioned type of evidences of democratic leadership reveals "motive" and deep-seated attitude. It is the most difficult of all to diagnose, and may be the most important of all.

It is at once apparent that in most democratic leaders these five classes of conduct are not found in equal proportion. Some may be missing entirely. In certain cases the goal may be democratic, and the method of coming to a decision autocratic. In other instances the goal and the method of arriving at decisions may be democratic, but "a big stick" may be used in attaining the goal. And all of the first four classes of democratic leadership may be exhibited—but in the end for purposes of gaining advancement. The first class, that of seeking democratic goals, is apparently the easiest and most common phase of democratic leadership to be achieved. The fifth class, that of leading democratically without any thought of personal reward, is evidently most difficult and rare.

In its fullest and richest sense democratic leadership is personal conduct which seeks to increase the welfare of other persons, which is arrived at by the combined judgments of those concerned, which emanates from a simple mode of living, which is carried out magnetically and by

example, and which seeks no personal rewards.

^{*}A weighting of these five "classes" would probably show them to be of unequal importance. Their relative importance might vary under different circumstances.

Book Notes

THE RACIAL HISTORY OF MAN. By ROLAND B. DIXON. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923, pp. xv+583.

In his important work the author begins, de novo in his study of earliest man. He uses fourteen criteria based chiefly on such factors as skeletal measurements. With these tools Dr. Dixon proceeds over the face of the earth, square mile by square mile almost, taking one continent after another, and examines the Paleolithic and Neolithic remains of human beings. He finds eight primitive types of races and his conclusions place him "squarely in the ranks of the long discredited polygenists." These "types" are scarcely represented among today's "races," practically all of which are blends of the elemental types. This blending implies that out of "a multitude of races, may come one race, which will be the consummation of them all." The author finds that the Nordic race is passing; in fact its "passing" was already far advanced before the discovery of America. Dr. Dixon anticipates no danger from this tendency, for the Nordic race will be absorbed in a wider complex of races, that may be superior to the Nordic. The white races are in no danger today from the darker folk of the world, for the Mediterranean, Caspian, and Alpine races possess superior traits to the other "types." If one grants the premises of physical anthropology then he must think highly of Dr. Dixon's treatise, even though he may not agree at all points.

JUDGE BAKER FOUNDATION CASE STUDIES. Series of Twenty. By WILLIAM HEALY and AUGUSTA F. BRONNER. Judge Baker Foundation, Boston, 1922-23.

This series covers a variety of problems of interest to sociologists, social workers and all who deal with matters involving the adjustments of young people. The authors take into consideration a wide range of factors which have to do with the development of personality and which influence behavior. These studies set a new standard for literature in this field in that they deal with a person in his social setting instead of with an isolated individual who has been labelled after a cursory physical examination and an intelligence test. Frequent references are made to the available literature in the field.

W. C. S.

CHILDREN ASTRAY. By Saul Drucker and Maurice Beck Hexter. Harvard University Press, 1923, pp. xxiv+421.

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Twenty-four social case histories of delinquent children in a childcaring institution are the subject matter of this volume. The histories are classified to illustrate the problem, the analysis, the treatment, and the result in dealing with eight varieties of delinquent children-truants, weaklings, wanderers, pilferers, characterially defective, precocious, sex problems, intractables. The cases are presented both as a contribution to the "teaching literature of social work," and as a demonstration of the "possibilities of using orphanages for special cases, rather than utilizing such institutions for the easy and 'normal' problems of child dependency." As usual, the cases are found to exemplify a variety of social and mental maladjustments; the symptoms indicated as evidences of these maladjustments are clearly recognized by the authors. The histories are presented according to a definite outline and are reported in an unusually interesting manner. The presentation is sociological, rather than psychological, although mental and physical diagnoses and prognoses are presented in each case. Of special value is the material concerning the process of treatment. In an introductory statement of fourteen pages, Dr. Richard C. Cabot presents a sketch concerning the "home" and the cases selected for study, and a critical analysis of certain phases of case reporting, social diagnosis, and methods of W. W. C. treatment.

THE MEDICINE MAN: A Sociological Study of the Character and Evolution of Shamanism. By John Lee Maddox. The Macmillan Co., 1923, pp. xv+330.

This monograph presents an intensive study of an outstanding functionary in societal development. Acting as a mediator between man and the invisible forces about him, the medicine man came to be the most influential personage of primitive times. This study shows how man has groped in the dark and blundered upon things which have made for progress. The medicine man frequently used herbs to expel demons from the sick and unwittingly stumbled upon several remedies which have come into general use throughout the civilized world. The results produced by his medicines enhanced his standing and thus he became a most important instrumentality of social control. The chapter on "Adventitious Aids" is interesting to the social psychologist. It shows the methods employed by the shaman to retain his position of leadership. At times there was imposture, but in most cases the shaman was sincere and honest even though he was working with an untenable hypothesis. W. C. S.

THE SOCIAL REVOLUTION IN MEXICO. By Edward Alsworth Ross. Century Co., 1923, pp. 176.

In ten interesting chapters Professor Ross plunges into the heart of agrarian problems, labor problems, educational, and religious problems in Mexico. As a trained sociological observer, accustomed to analyzing new and strange social situations and societies, the author has brought to light many new angles to Mexican conditions. The average reader will find the book too short, and will wish that the author had extended his keen analyses into every phase of Mexican life. The land feudalism and the movement toward land reform and the breaking up of the large estates; the growing labor influence, its 100 per cent Mexicanism, and its suspicion and abhorrence of foreign capital with its program of doing little for Mexico and much for itself, the right to receive wages while on a strike; the beginning of a prohibition movement; the struggle of the church to get back into power; the extension of public education—these are a few of the more important phases of the social revolution now going on in Mexico which Professor Ross delineates with clarity and E.S.B. force.

THE STATE. By Franz Oppenheimer. Second American Edition. B. W. Huebsch, 1923, pp. xv+302.

This edition is the same as the first except that a twelve page preface in which the author calls attention to the fact that both capitalism and socialism had their origin in England and wherein he defines the state as "that summation of privileges and dominating positions which are brought into being by extra economic power." The origin of the state is found in "a social institution, forced by a victorious group of men on a defeated group" for the purpose of regulating their dominion, especially the economic dominion, over the vanquished and of securing itself against internal revolt and external attack.

THE RELIGION OF THE PRIMITIVES. By ALEXANDER LE Roy. The Macmillan Company, 1922, pp. x+334.

The author began his career as a missionary in Africa in 1877 and has had intimate contact with several backward groups. He has brought together a great fund of detailed information, but the reader must soon conclude that the writer is not an ethnologist but a sectarian propagandist. The thesis of the book is that certain religious elements have been found among all primitive peoples and that they are also found in the Catholic religion.

W. C. S.

CHRISTIANITY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE: A Challenge to the Church. By Charles A. Ellwood. Macmillan Co., 1923, pp. 214.

All the readers of Dr. Ellwood's Reconstruction of Religion will at once be interested in this new work, for it constitutes a sequel of far-reaching importance to the earlier book. It deals with fundamentals, such as the principle of service, the principle of love, the principle of reconciliation. Its analysis of religious leadership is the best that the reviewer has seen. Its basic hypothesis is that religion, if it is to meet the needs of today, must harmonize itself with the principles of social science, including social evolution and democracy. Dr. Ellwood points out the things which people and the church will do if they sincerely wish to become Christian in the sense that Jesus lived that term in all his social relationships. The style of the book is clear, forceful, and logical. Scientific and sociological viewpoints control this sanely human treatment of the socio-religious problem. Scientific truth, to the author, is not produced by specialists whose thinking has become isolated, but by a specialization that is always kept related to all the needs of human beings. The author is not under the control of either a narrow pedantry or cold materialistic intellectualism. A keen, bold, and sane thinker has produced a stimulating and original work not only in the field of applied sociology but also in social ethics and religion. E. S. B.

THE DEFECTIVE, DELINQUENT AND INSANE: The Relations of Focal Infections to their Causation, Treatment and Prevention. By HENRY A. COTTON. Princeton University Press, 1921, pp. xvi+201.

The author pushes quite to the extreme the idea of the neuro-biological causation of behavior. He maintains that the doctrine of heredity has led to a sort of fatalism which has impeded research. Mental disorders, according to modern biological knowledge, are not primarily due to heredity, but many factors enter in of which the most important are the circulating toxins originating in focal infections. Certain disorders are also the result of disturbances in the ductless glands.

W. C. S.

RECONSTRUCTION IN RELIGION. By Charles A. Ellwood. Macmillan Co., 1923.

In this new edition of a remarkably useful book that appeared a year ago, the author has added a selected list of books for collateral reading and an analytical table of contents.

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY. By GLENN E. PLUMB and W. G. ROYLANCE. B. W. Huebsch, Inc., 1923, pp. xix 359.

The Plumb plan, first applied to transportation, was expanded to include all industry by Mr. Plumb before his death, who "literally gave his life for the attainment of a larger life for millions who trusted him and loved him as few men are ever loved and trusted" (p. xviii). Government ownership and control is proposed for all national, state, and municipal public utilities, and a plan of labor representation in all other industries. "Investors of labor shall have equal rights with investors of capital." An employee receiving wages of \$1,000 a year will have voting power in the corporation equal to that of an investor of money whose preferred dividend is \$1,000 a year. Other innovations are suggested. The point of view is evolutionary, not revolutionary; the desire is to secure cooperation between labor and capital. The style is clear and the sincerity of the authors is evident, but the proposals emphasize a change in economic organization without emphasizing the importance of socializing the attitudes of both labor and capital.

AMERICANS IN EASTERN ASIA: A Critical Study of the Policy of the United States with Reference to China, Japan and Korea in the 19th Century. By Tyler Dennett. Macmillan Co., 1922, pp. xvi+725.

This book traces the Far Eastern Question from its beginnings in American commerce in 1783 down to the present. It considers such topics as the influence of "Big Business" and the missionaries on our policies, the share of America in the opium trade and the stand taken for the open door. The leading European powers are brought into the discussion and the characteristic western attitude of superiority obtrudes itself, be it in religion or commerce. This is illustrated by the fact that "Christianity was, in a measure, like opium, being imposed upon China without the consent of the people."

W. C. S.

THE COUNTRY NEWSPAPER. By MILLARD V. ATWOOD. A. C. McClurg & Co., 1923, pp. 137.

In this handy volume of the National Social Science Series, edited by F. L. McVey, the reader is given a picture of the nature and importance of the country weekly newspaper. The last chapter is entitled, "Its Future and Possibilities," and speaks for a country newspaper that will be the product of the joint work of a civically responsible editor and a community that likewise feels a sense of social responsibility. STATISTICAL METHOD. By Truman L. Kelley. The Macmillan Company, 1923, pp. xi+390.

This volume is designed to meet the statistical needs of students in the social and biological sciences and to provide a foundation for advanced work in these fields. It deals with both elementary and advanced statistical technique including tabular and graphic methods, averages, dispersion, curves and distributions, measures of relationship, correlation, regression, multiple correlation, index numbers, etc. A number of new procedures and time-saving devices add to the value of the book. The desire of the author to present an accurate foundation in statistical methods has led to the inclusion of a mass of proof of algebraic formulae and of calculus, and a number of new symbols. Nearly every page contains data of these kinds which will undoubtedly appall the beginner. Although the general approach is through concrete problems, considerable space is given to foundational theory while processes explanatory or illustrative of method are relatively limited. The volume will provide a greatly needed reference book for advanced students but it is hardly suitable for beginning students who wish an introduction to the elements of statistics. W. W. C.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE CRIMINAL. By M. HAMBLIN SMITH. Robert M. McBride & Co., N. Y., 1923, pp. vii+182.

According to the author, conduct is the direct result of mental life, and any solution of the problems of crime must come through a thorough study of individual offenders. In this investigation he makes room for three experts, the physician, the psychologist, and the psycho-analyst. The function of the third, however, is considered by far the most important. Even though the treatise is unbalanced in that it practically omits the social factors involved, it has much to offer to the student and worker in this particular field. Since the book is directed to the social worker and general reader many of the technical terms are explained.

W. C. S.

WHAT IS PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK? By L. A. HALBERT, Kansas City, 1923, pp. 149.

In simple direct style Mr. Halbert offers a series of definitions and explanations of such topics as: social work, family social work, medical social work, and psychiatric social work. He classifies social workers according to types of institutions in which they are working and to the steps in the process of social work. A splendid chart that summarizes the entire field of social work almost at a glance, is given.

INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION. By MALCOLM KEIR. The Ronald Press, 1923, pp. vi+421.

Mr. Keir has drawn a rapid survey of the industrial life of the United States for the purpose of aiding those who may be embarking upon a scientific study of theoretical economics. An interesting observation occurs in the following: "In all this later development there has been an almost unwarranted exploitation of resources and men in the mad race to make money. The period has been highly materialistic and mercenary." It would seem that the recognition of such a fact is one of the first steps toward the creation of a sociological economist.

M. J. V.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF MISCONDUCT, VICE AND CRIME. By Bernard Hollander. Macmillan, 1923, pp. 220.

In this book considerable stress is placed upon the physiological factors which influence the mental processes. The author adopts a modified phrenological system and states that "the size and shape of the head is always a great revelation." He takes the position that a head injury in a certain area frequently results in delinquent behavior of a quite definite kind. The treatment of delinquents along medical and psycho-therapeutic lines is suggested. This study is from the point of view of individual psychology rather than from that of social psychology.

W. C. S.

THE MAGYARS IN AMERICA. By D. A. Souders. George H. Doran Co., 1923, pp. ix+149.

In this the sixth volume of the "new American Series" which is being published under the direction of the Home Missions Council of America, Magyar history, conditions in Hungary, and economic, social, religious conditions among the Magyars in America are the leading topics and new light is thrown on the attitudes and particularly on religious attitudes of these people.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE COUNTRY COMMUNITY. By WARREN H. WILSON. Pilgrim Press, 1923, Revised Edition, pp. xiii+259.

The author has revised and brought to date the earlier editions of this splendid analysis of country life. He has added considerable new illustrative matter. The book is noteworthy for its grasp of rural life in the larger national and social aspects.

THE RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE ORIENT. By M. Anesaki. Macmillan Co., 1923, pp. xi+77.

The author considers that the fundamental problem, not only in the East but in the West as well, is the question of man's spiritual attitude toward life in society and in the universe. He holds that the chief differences today in the world are found in cultural heritages rather than in biological inheritances. The interaction between Orient and Occident is upsetting the cultural heritages of the Orient and the Orient's emphasis on communalism. Everywhere religions are failing to keep pace with the changing social needs and situations, and yet the hope of the future rests in adequate spiritual attitudes.

INSANITY AND THE CRIMINAL LAW. By WILLIAM A. WHITE, M. D. The Macmillan Company, 1923, pp. ix+281.

This book shows the inadequacy of the present methods of dealing with the mentally diseased criminals. Many such persons are released through petty legal technicalities. The expert on mental diseases has as yet no place in our courts; the attorneys bend their efforts to discredit his testimony. According to the author the time has come when the law should make use of psychiatry in dealing with problems of anti-social conduct. The psychiatrist endeavors to find all the factors, individual and social, which have been responsible for the criminal act, and on this basis the proper course of treatment can be prescribed.

W. C. S.

CHRISTIANITY AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS. By KIRBY PAGE, chairman, Association Press, 1923, pp. 120.

With the keen-edged sword of facts the authors lay bare the injustices in the present economic system. Principles are sought out and programs offered in this "discussion group text-book" which will make a thoughtful person feel a sense of responsibility for present evils and strive toward a goal where "industry is regarded as a public service and goods are produced because they are needed, not merely because they can be sold at a profit."

SOCIAL WORK IN THE CHURCHES. By ARTHUR E. HOLT. Pilgrim Press, 1923, pp. 131.

This small but helpful book is divided into two parts: one treats of the principles of the church in relation to the home, the occupations, the community, other churches, benevolences; the other includes a large number of practical methods and suggestions for social service work by the churches.

WORLD FRIENDSHIP THROUGH THE CHURCH SCHOOL.

By J. L. Lobingier. University of Chicago Press, 1923, pp. xi+91.

This small book provides materials for ten lessons for a training course for church workers whereby world attitudes are brought to the foreground and provincialism is challenged. The purpose is worthy and the materials are carefully worked out.

THE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING. By Annie M. Brainerd. W. B. Saunders Co., 1922, pp. xiv+454.

In clear, descripitve language, the author records the history of public health nursing from the visiting nurses in the days of the Roman Empire. This book constitutes a worthy addition to the growing literature on the history of social work as a profession. No one can read this treatise without developing an increased respect for the public health nurse.

AMERICAN JEWISH YEAR BOOK. Jewish Publication Society of America, 1922, vol. 24., pp. ix+570.

This compendium contains a directory of Jewish national organizations, Jewish Federated charities, Jewish periodicals, and Jewish members of Congress. It gives statistics of Jews, such as population and immigration figures. A special feature is a "Survey of the Year 5682," dealing with significant Jewish occurrences throughout the world. Another feature is a list of prominent Jews in the United States constituting the beginning of a Jewish "Who's Who."

THE STANDARD OF LIVING. By Newel Howland Comish. Macmillan, 1923, pp. xiv+340.

The author of this book writes in the preface that it is intended for the college student, the statesman, and the general reader interested in the problem of consumption. While presenting information that is valuable, it is extremely doubtful whether the statesman would find much that was new. The sociologist will be disappointed to find that the author has not stressed the sociological point of view in his discussion on standards of living. Some good thought questions are found at the end of each of the chapters, and the prospective buyer of foodstuffs is furnished with several sets of useful illustrations exposing the fraudulent practices of marketing. The Minimum Quantity Budget for the Worker's Family sent out by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1920 is reprinted in Chapter Six.

M. J. V.

THE REAL CHINESE IN AMERICA. By J. S. Tow. Academy Press, Fourth Ave., New York, 1923, pp. 168.

In this useful book of information attention is given sincerely and carefully to the social and economic conditions of the Chinese in the United States, and to the legal and social treatment accorded the Chinese. While far from being an exhaustive treatment it will help to give the American who reads it a better appreciation of the Chinese in this country.

CHINESE STUDENTS IN AMERICA: Qualities Associated with Their Success. By J. P. Chu, Ph. D. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

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um BuThis monograph is a contribution to methels of sociological research. The author has sought to find correlations between such matters as scholarship and leadership, and has produced a stimulating work in the field of social research and statistics. The "judgment of associates" test receives special attention.

MOTION PICTURES IN EDUCATION. By Ellis and Thorn-BOROUGH. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1923, pp. xvii+284.

In this history of the use of the motion picture in education the authors speak as advocates; they take up all the objections to such procedures and answer these in order. Emphasis is given to methods of using motion pictures in teaching as well as to technique of installation and to lists of available films. The underlying principle involved is indicated in these words: "If an object be not essentially a moving object there is no valid reason for showing a film in preference to a slide."

THE RETURN OF THE MIDDLE AGES. By John Corbin. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923, pp. 353.

The middle class is passive, this is socially unfortunate—so far, good. The middle class must be reinstated—why? Because it is a powerful and indispensable ally to employers. Moreover, the author contends that the Democratic Revolution and the Industrial Revolution have weakened the middle class home and dis-established the "gentlewoman" and the "lady" in these homes. The arguments in the book are as apt to turn backward as forward, to privilege as to democracy and justice and human welfare.

Periodical Notes

Paying for Workmen's Misfortunes. The American practice of placing responsibility for workmen's accident insurance upon the employer has been distinctly successful in reducing the number of accidents. It seems reasonable that if this responsibility were extended to the problem of unemployment, also, a similar result might be expected. Gorton James, North American Review, May, 1923, 607-615.

Humanizing the Immigration Law. The present Percentage Act, controlling immigration, is fundamentally unsound, for it attacks basic social institutions. But it should at least be made more humane and efficient. The American government should assume full responsibility for the humane administration of the law by means of its consuls in foreign countries. Frances Kellor, North American Review, June, 1923, 769-784.

Some Larger Aspects of Social Work. Social work transcends the efforts of other lines of service by looking at humanity as a whole, and seeking to remedy those maladjustments which are not touched by other constructive forces. No other profession has a broader field, nor requires a deeper philosophy of individual and social values. James H. Tufts, Jour. of Social Forces, May, 1923, 359-361.

What Is a Community? The term "community" has been loosely used to designate almost any sort of a group of people just so long as they lived near each other. We must think of a community as a group of people who, in their interests and activities, work with each other to a greater degree than against each other. Stuart A. Queen, Jour. of Social Forces, May, 1923, 375-382.

The Interdependence of Sociology and Social Work. Sociology and social work are coming closer together as both emphasize research. Sociology is developing tools for the analysis of personality and group behavior which will aid the social worker. On the other hand, data collected by social agencies are of distinct value for sociological investigation. If these materials were organized and classified by the sociologist, social knowledge would increase and social practice would improve. E. W. Burgess, Jour. of Social Forces, May, 1923, 366-370.

The Church and Social Hygiene. Since there are no impulses stronger than the sex and reproductive tendencies, the church cannot honorably shirk the responsibility for proper leadership and training on this fundamental question. Jour. of Social Hygiene, June, 1923, 330-342.

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The Demoralized Family. The pauperization of a family will inevitably lead to its demoralization. In order to save a man's self-respect and eventually his character, means should be provided whereby he can help to pay for what he receives. "An ounce of insistence upon self-service is better than a pound of social service." M. J. Karpf, Jour. of Social Forces, May, 1923, 417-420.

Triple Compensation for Injured Children. A helpful suggestion in regard to the child labor problem is that triple compensation be given to illegally employed minors who are injured in the course of their work. This is not only due to the children, but would also have a tendency to deter the employers from breaking the law. E. E. White, Amer. Labor Legislation Review, June, 1923, 123-129.

The United States and the Permanent Court of International Justice. The United States will remain entirely free with regard to the League of Nations but there will be no antagonism between the two for the Americans are anxious to maintain peace and to help build a sound international law; they may enter the Court of Justice. Eugene Borel, Amer. Jour. of Intern. Law, July, 1923, 429-437.

Home Responsibilities of Women Workers and the "Equal Wage." The demand by women for equal pay is a plea for just treatment and to be so remunerated as to be able to render one's most efficient service without constituting oneself a menace to a standard of life already built up by other workers. S. P. Breckinridge, Jour. of Political Economy, August, 1923, 521-543.

The Jewish Mind in the Making. The Jew has certain characteristic traits which have been developed through generations of subjection to a certain social environment. Restrictions of various sorts have kept him on the defensive so that he is frequently lacking in poise and reserve. Denied an outlet in the creative world, the Jew of gifted mind soars in an atmosphere created by his own imagination. E. M. Friedman, Mental Hygiene, April, 1923, 345-56.

Concerning some Faulty Conceptions of Social Psychology. Social psychology is not the study of groups; it is not concerned exclusively with reactions of persons to other persons as stimuli; it can deal only with specific psychological phenomena, actual responses of specific individuals to specific stimuli situations. J. R. Kantor, Jour. of Philosophy, Aug. 2, 1923, 421-32.

Racial Differences as Measured by the Downey Will-Temperament Test. No very striking differences were found in tests made on Negro and white high school and college students. In general, the Negro is slower in movement; has slightly less flexibility and is slightly quicker in making his decisions. The whites slightly surpass the Negroes in the number of mobile, rapid-fire individuals and they have a clear superiority in the number of controlled, deliberate, careful persons. J. H. McFadden and J. H. Dashiell, Jour. Applied Psychology, March, 1923, 30-53.

The Problem of Success in Evolution. Biologists and sociologists alike are coming to recognize the important part played by cooperation in the evolution of life. Those species which have learned how to live together have survived and multiplied. The success of man, as that of the insects, is a monument, not so much to adaptation, as to symbiosis. H. Reinheimer, Sociological Review, April, 1923, 148-157.

The Juvenile Court and the Educational System. There is a fundamental shift of public sentiment toward problems of juvenile delinquency as educational rather than penal. It is highly desirable that such cases be handled out of court as far as possible, and it is to be hoped that eventually probation officers as a profession will actually align themselves with the educational, as well as the social work and prison groups. Thomas D. Eliot, Jour. of Crim. Law and Criminology, May, 1923, 25-45.

Functions of Public Employment Services and Public Works. A long step toward the solution of the unemployment problem might be taken by the establishment of a national employment service that would be able to cooperate with many forces which the private organization could not reach, such as universities, immigration officials, and the government in regard to the question of reserving public works for times of unemployment. Bryce M. Stewart, Amer. Labor Legislation Review, March, 1923, 54-63.

Observations on Public Health in the Orient. The seeds of public health have been planted in every large country in the Orient. The drawbacks are poverty, ignorance, politics, and religion. W. W. Peter, Amer. Jour. of Public Health, August, 1923, 627-35.

Invention and Social Progress. Social progress is secured through physical inventions (adjusting man to his physical environment), social inventions (adjusting men to men), and method inventions (adjusting habit to functional need and idea to idea). L. L. Bernard, Amer. Jour. of Sociology, July, 1923, 1-33.

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Democracy, or What? The recent indictments of democracy have been many and ferocious, but the change from capitalism to cooperation and the rise of a cooperative social and economic order is taking place chiefly and gradually by democratic means. V. S. Yarros, Intern. Jour. of Ethics, July, 1923, 369-387.

Individualism and Democracy. The capitalistic conservative has always regarded his own class as an end and the workers as means; the labor radical regards the workers as the end and the capitalist as the parasite. In these bitter conflicts of class viewpoint lies the issue between aristocracy and democracy. A. B. Wolfe, Intern. Jour. of Ethics, July, 1923, 398-415.

Theology from the Point of View of Social Psychology. New social needs and interests give rise to new religious needs and formulas; new occasions will develop new patterns by which to set forth new realities of the spirit. Shailer Matthews, Journal of Religion, July, 1923, 337-351.

On the Mechanism of Cultural Variations. There are definite variations in the receptive attitude of the average individual toward particular ideas or classes of ideas which occur at certain periods in relation to some other evolutionary factor. C. W. Soal, Sociological Rev., July, 1923, 173-179.

The Problem of Instinct and its Relation to Social Psychology. Instincts, if the term is used at all, may be considered as comparatively simple responses, differing from reflexes in being more complex and in being capable of integration, and from random movements in being well organized behavior. They probably do not exist among human beings and have no place in social psychology. J. R. Kantor, Jour. of Abnormal Psychology and Social Psychology, Apr.-June, 1923, 50-77.

Round Table Notes

If it is true that man made the city, it is quite as true that the city is now making man. Park, in Preface to Anderson, The Hobo, p. v.

What we were really fighting for in the late war was the right of Belgium and every other country to possess and to cherish its own culture. Wissler, Man and Culture, p. 334.

THE MAN whose restless disposition made him a pioneer on the frontier tends to become a "homeless man"—a hobo and a vagrant—in the modern city. Park in Preface to Anderson, *The Hobo*, p. v.

We need to make an entire generation feel that pleasure-seeking and wealth-getting, whether they be by the way of capitalism or by the way of socialism, are not the meaning of Americanism. Mathews, Validity of American Ideals, p. 192.

With half an eye the sociologist sees that Mexico is narcotized by the toxins developed in a conquest society, viz., contempt for manual labor, scorn for the useful and dependence on menial service. Ross, *The Social Revolution in Mexico*, p. 28.

The real measure of a community's strength for good lies, not in the number and variety of its institutions, not alone in the personality or enthusiasm of its social workers, but in the effective joining of their forces. Cannon, Social Work in Hospitals, 1923 edition, p. 137.

Social psychology... considers the behavior of groups, their influence upon their members, the development of mind and personality as affected by social environment, and in general the interaction between persons in any social situation. Tufts, Education and Training for Social Work, p. 153.

WITH ALL the genius and high-mindedness of his time, Plato never for a moment imagined a state without slavery, and it is safe to say that no Greek ever questioned the necessity and the right of the strong to enslave and grind down the weak for their own selfish ends. Wissler, Man and Culture, p. 330.